

A Global Economics Model

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A GLOBAL ECONOMIC MODEL

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PREFACE

There are appropriate occasions for large detailed models and for small simple models. In the context of the analysis of the world economy over long stretches of time, a good case can be made for the building of a small model—one that captures the essence of some aspect of growth and general economic environment that can serve a wide variety of problems. Many of these problems are going to be handled by scholars who are not economists—therefore, it is advantageous to construct a model that is not data—intensive, that is easy to manage, and easy to apply to a limited range of issues.

It is in response to the need for a model that meets such constraints that I have put together the simple system in this paper. There is much to be said in favor of learning to walk before learning to run. It is in this spirit that the present system is tentatively put forward.

The present study is only a first attempt. Many of the data and specifications need further work in a number of directions. It is hoped that it will generate discussion and provide a framework for moving to larger scale global systems that capture more of the detailed inter-relationships of the world economy. It is also hoped that the discussion can lead to suggestions for better data compilation and processing.

I wish to thank Bert Hickman of Stanford University for research collaboration on earlier versions of the present system, Mrs. Bijou Yeh for the enormous task of putting that data series together (this part was data intensive—the use and maintenance of the data are much less intensive) and Hans-Holger Rogner for programming assistance.



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Motivation and Objectives

The predominant emphasis in macro econometric model building has been on short term national models, concerned with forecasting over an horizon of some one to three years (by months, quarters, years). Some of these models, especially those with large input-output components, have been regularly used in decade-long simulations. More recently, econometricians have become concerned with longer term prospects, notably because energy scenarios require at least two or three decades to deal with significant changes in the delivery and use of energy.

The few long term models that have been used for energy analysis or related problems of resource exhaustion and environmental protection have been relatively large systems. This is particularly true of input-output based systems. Models designed by Jorgenson and associates might be so compact that they have no more than 100 or so equations, while the models of Almon (IMFORUM), Wharton EFA (WEFA), and the Economic Council of Canada (CANDIDE) consist of some one thousand or more equations. These are large dataintensive systems. They are excellent but not readily manageable. Also, such models have been mainly confined to analysis of national economies. The Leontief model and some new proposals are trying to deal with the world economy at a detailed inter-industry level, but model management problems and data problems are severe. The project LINK models treat the entire world trading system at the individual country level with new research into capital flows/exchange rates,

but that is a 5000-equation system (still expanding) and very complicated to manage, apart from being confined to a fairly short horizon - no more than a decade, at the present time.

After reviewing available systems and looking at perceived research needs, a system meeting the following conditions has been devised:

- It should be global in scope covering the whole world;
- 2. It should be global in concept covering broad macro economic behavior or conditions;
- 3. It should be capable of interpreting some of the world's main problems of international economic relations;
- 4. It should be easily manageable and not data intensive;
- 5. It should be a general framework that readily admits improvement and elaboration;
- 6. It should be suitable for analysis of long term horizons.

During the early research phases of the Mesarovic-Pestel global modeling exercise, a general specification of an economic module meeting most of the above conditions was prepared jointly by B.G. Hickman and L.R. Klein. The authors were not prepared to release the paper at that time because the model lacked price relationships, as well as an adequate data base. It is the intent of the present paper to carry through this work partially to completion.

^{1.} M. Mesarovic and E. Pestel, <u>Mankind at the Turning Point</u>, (N.Y.: E.P. Dutton (Reader's Digest Press, 1974), p.198. A complete specification was presented to the IIASA Conference on Global Modeling, March, 1974, Baden. The equations were published in Russian, A.A. Rivkin, I. Sh. Amirov, "Critical Analysis of Global Project 'Humanity in Front of Choice' Models," <u>Economics and Mathematical Methods</u>, XIII (May-June, 1977), 440-56.

Thanks are due to Dr. Hickman for critical observiations on the present paper.

The data problem is not simple, but once a usable data base has been constructed, it is relatively easy to maintain it. The problem is to make an adequate inventory and analysis of data country-by-country and to combine them into meaningful aggregates for designated groupings of nations. There will always be knotty, unsolved data problems in this work, but once a set of procedures has been worked out, it should be possible to update and refine the basic data set with relative ease. It is in this sense that the model is not data-intensive.

The motivation, therefore, is to complete the economic model structure that was originally implemented for the Mesarovic-Pestel global model by adding a price system, building a usable data base, and using the system in long run simulations. Although the system is contemplated for background economic use in energy analysis, it is not a system with explicit energy sectors. It can, however, serve as a base into which to imbed or onto which to add an energy sector. Other sectors for which long run analysis is pertinent, such as agriculture, demography, or exhaustible resources, could also be studied in the same framework. The system is not energy specific, although the long run nature of the economic aspects of energy motivate the preparation of this model.

Model Specification

The present version of the model is not identical with that originally constructed for the Mesarovic-Pestel system, but it is designed in the same spirit. It is different partly because of

some data/accounting issues, and it has been enhanced by the inclusion of a price system.

The global economy can be split into regions in various ways.

From the viewpoint of economic structure, a useful set of groupings is:

The first world, consisting of the OECD countries plus

South Africa. These might also be called the industrial

democracies and will be denoted by subscript "D", standing

for developed.

The second world, consisting of the centrally planned (CMEA) economies in Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union, Mainland China, VietNam, North Korea, Mongolian Peoples Republic, and Cuba. They will be denoted by subscript "C", standing for centrally planned.

The third world, consisting of the developing countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East. South Africa is excluded from Africa; China and other centrally planned economies from Asia; and Cuba from Latin America. Island nations of the Far East are included in Asia. The developing countries will be denoted by subscript "L", standing for Less developed countries.

Occasionally, the third world is split into two groups - oil producers in OPEC and those outside OPEC. The latter are sometimes referred to as the "fourth" world. It would be possible to make an OPEC/non-OPEC split and have four economic regions, but the present

paper is based on three. For energy analysis, it is definitely going to be useful to subdivide the world into four groups. Mexico, as well as some developed countries are major oil producers; therefore, OPEC nations do not automatically encompass the global oil supply. From a practical point of view, however, it is probably simplest to deal with OPEC as an economic entity. Middle East, Persian Gulf or other groupings of oil producers would also be of some use in the analysis, but considering all aspects of the data and structural behavioral problems, it seems best to treat OPEC separately if a move from three to four groupings is to be undertaken.

The model is quite compact and can be laid out all at once.

D, Industrial Democracies

```
sY = k(Y-Y_{-1})
s = 0.2 + E/Y
k = K/Y
K = Lexp \{0.62738 ln \frac{(w/p)}{(i/p)} + 2.86975\}
w/p = 0.051862 Y/L - 0.095046
L/N = 0.013014 w/p + 0.118320
i/p = 0.06
X_{DD} = 0.095 Y
X_{LD} = 0.020 Y
X_{CD} = 0.004 Y
E = X_{D} - \tau_{D}(X_{DD} + X_{LD} + X_{CD})
X_{D} = X_{DD} + X_{DL} + X_{DC}
```

C, Centrally Planned Economies

$$sY = k (Y-Y_{-1})$$

$$s = 0.097927 \frac{\Delta Y/N}{(Y/N)_{-1}} + 0.263063$$

$$k = 40.0 (X_{DC}/Y) + 3.08$$

$$K = kY$$

$$w/p = 0.001425 t + 0.977865$$

$$L/N = 0.001052 t + 0.066837$$

$$X_{DC} = X_{CD} + CR_{DC}$$

$$X_{LC} = X_{CL}$$

$$X_{CC} = 0.025 Y$$

$$X_C = X_{CD} + X_{CL} + X_{CC}$$

L, Less Developed Countries

$$sY = k (Y - Y_1)$$

s = 1.510902 E/Y + 0.241487
$$\left(\frac{\Delta Y/N}{Y/N}\right)_{1}$$
 + 0.171637

$$k = K/Y$$

$$K = \text{Lexp } \{0.329619 \text{ ln } \frac{(w/p)}{(i/p)} + 1.149630\} + \sum_{i=24}^{t} (0.95)^{i} (T_{DL})_{\neg i} + T_{DI}$$

$$w/p = 0.094076 Y/L + 0.652301$$

$$L/N = 0.000289 t + 0.067781$$

$$i/p = 0.02$$

$$X_{DL} = X_{LD} + T_{DL}$$

$$X_{CL} = 0.013 Y$$

$$X_{LL} = 0.035 Y$$

$$E = X_{L} - \tau_{L} (X_{LL} + X_{DL} + X_{CL})$$

$$X_{L} = X_{LD} + X_{LL} + X_{LC}$$

$$T_{DL} = \alpha Y_{D}$$

Variables of the Global Model

 $Y = \text{real GDP in each area } (Y_D, Y_L, Y_C)$

 $s = savings rate (s_D, s_L, s_C)$

 $k = capital-output ratio (k_D, k_T, K_C)$

 $E = real trade balance (E_D, E_L)$

 $1/\tau = \text{terms of trade } (\tau_D, \tau_L)$

 $K = \text{stock of capital } (K_D, K_L, K_C)$

 $w/p = real wage rate ((w/p)_D, (w/p)_L, (w/p)_C)$

 $i/p = real interest rate ((i/p)_D, (i/p)_L)$

 $L = employment (L_D, L_L, L_C)$

 $N = population (N_D, N_L, N_C)$

 T_{DL} = real transfers from developed to developing areas

 CR_{DC} = trade credits granted by developed to centrally planned economies

 $X_{i\dot{j}}$ = real exports from area i to area j (i,j = D, L, C)

 X_{i} = total real exports of area i (i = D, L, C)

World Trade Matrix

		mporting		
Exporting	D	L		Total Exports
D .	x_{DD}	\mathbf{x}_{DL}	x _{DC}	$\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{D}}$
L	$\mathbf{x}_{\mathtt{LD}}$	$\mathbf{x}_{\mathtt{LL}}$	x_{LC}	$x_\mathtt{L}$
С	x _{CD}	X _{CL}	x _{cc}	Х _С

Row sums are total exports; column sums are total imports (not used explicitly in this model)

With identities and all, there are only 35 equations in this world model. With direct substitution of some identities, it could be made somewhat smaller, but this is a sufficiently compact description of the world economy that it can be programmed and manipulated with a great deal of ease. It remains to explain its logical structure in terms of bringing out the main characteristics of each world, of explaining the international trade/transfer relationships, and in generating the world growth process. Each world is structured so as to show some of its peculiar characteristics and the way present or contemplated world conditions would affect them.

There are three structural components in each of these three models:

- (i) saving and investment behavior,
- (ii) relative price formation,
- (iii) international trade.

To explain the underlying assumptions in the model, it is convenient to deal with these components, in turn. First, however, it will be instructive to list the dependent (endogenous) and independent (exogenous) variables of the system.

The dependent variables are:

First World -
$$s_D Y_D E_D k_D K_D (\frac{w}{p})_D (-\frac{i}{p})_D L_D$$

 $X_{DD} X_{CD} X_{LD} X_D$
Second World - $s_C Y_C k_C K_C (\frac{w}{p})_C L_C$
 $X_{DC} X_{CC} X_{LC} X_C$
Third World - $s_L Y_L E_L k_L K_L (-\frac{w}{p})_L (-\frac{i}{p})_L L_L$
 $X_{DL} X_{CL} X_{LL} X_L T_{DL}$

They are similar for each of the three cases. There is no interest rate or non-zero trade balance variable for the centrally planned economies. The capital transfer variable appears only in the equation system for the developing countries.

The independent variables are τ_D τ_L CR_{DC} N_D N_C N_L . The terms of trade and trade credit variables are assumed to be exogenous. To the extent that the terms of trade between regions are now controlled by the OPEC cartel, the assumption that τ_D or τ_L is exogenous has a great deal of plausibility. The arguments against this assumption are that all trade with the developing world is not oil trade and that the terms of trade, like exchange rates, should ultimately be explained by supply and demand balance. Even OPEC may not be able to defy the laws of economics indefinitely. They have succeeded in enforcing their price for 5 years and may continue to do so, but a long run model might well assume that the laws of economics eventually prevail. This notion will be introduced in later versions. At the present time, exogeneity of τ_D and τ_L are assumed.

Trade credits granted by industrial to centrally planned economies are always under discussion, in some form or other, and involve a number of noneconomic considerations. For the present analysis, however, this variable is kept in the exogenous category, subject to political determination.

The overall growth process is demonstrated in each case by the same mechanism, a Harrod-Domar or multiplier-accelerator

mechanism that combines the productivity of capital with the provision of savings for investment purposes. It can be seen immediately that each world area is headed by the equation

$$sY = k(Y-Y_{-1})$$

The flow of savings is

S = sY

where Y = real output

s = savings rate (average propensity to save)

S = total real savings.

Total capital is related to output by

K = kY

k = capital-output ratio (inverse of average productivity
 of capital)

K = stock of capital

Investment is given by

$$K-K_{-1} = k(Y-Y_{-1}),$$

and the accounting equality between savings and investment gives us the dynamic relation to determine output

$$Y = \frac{k}{k-s}$$
 $Y_{-1} = \frac{1}{1-\frac{s}{k}}$ Y_{-1}

The ratio s/k is crucial in interpreting the long run growth rate. The savings rate will generally be bounded

$$0 < s < 1$$
,

empirically in the narrower range from 0.1 to 0.4. The capital

output ratio will be generally a multiple of GDP,

so

$$(1 - \frac{s}{k})^{-1} = 1 + \frac{s}{k} + (\frac{s}{k})^2 + (\frac{s}{k})^3 + ---$$

Define the growth rate as that value of r satisfying

$$1 + r = (1 - \frac{s}{k})^{-1} = 1 + \frac{s}{k} + (\frac{s}{k})^2 + (\frac{s}{k})^3 + ---$$

Then

$$r = \frac{\frac{s}{k}}{\frac{s}{1-k}}$$

This is all simple enough if s and k are constants. Then, only one equation would be needed for output determination in each world area. The fact is that s and k are not constant. They are ratios of variables that must be separately determined by distinctive processes in each area and affected by international economic relations.

The simple Harrod-Damar model with constant savings and accelerator coefficients are only indicative in the present context. We assume that a finite difference equation in Y that resembles the basic multiplier-accelerator equation holds, with variable coefficients This does not strictly equate savings and investment for three reasons:

 Savings are reckoned "gross" in this model, while investment would need to have depreciation added to the change in capital stock. We would have to write

$$S = \Delta K + \delta K_{-1}$$

where the second term on the right denotes capital consumption.

2. With a variable capital-output ratio, net investment investment would be

$$\Delta K \simeq k\Delta Y + Y\Delta k$$

We have not used the second term on the right hand side. 1

Our accounting is not complete in this model because only merchandise trade is explicitly accounted for.

We did not model trade in invisibles that would be needed for the savings-investment identity. See p_2/
below. In a later, extended version of this model, some of these different treatments of the savings - investment identity are being measured and modeled differently.

The historical statistics indicate remarkable stability in the savings ratio, s, for the industrial democracies at about 0.2. Constancy of the savings ratio has long been observed in individual developed countries, but has not been studied widely for the first world as a whole. There are well known cyclical fluctuations in the savings rate, and it is not strictly a constant. Something new has come on the horizon, however, in connection with new pricing of energy, namely a transfer of resources from the developed to

^{1.} We did not use the incremental (ICOR) ratio $v = \Delta K/\Delta Y$ because it tends to be unstable in annual statistical series.

the developing countries, including OPEC in the latter.

Nominal trade has generally been in overall balance for the developed countries in the first world,

$$(PX)_D X_D - (PM)_D (X_{DD} + X_{LD} + X_{CD}) = 0$$

If we divide both sides by PX_D, we get

$$X^{D} - (\overline{b}X^{D})$$
 $(X^{DD} + X^{DD} + X^{CD}) = 0$

After the re-pricing of oil by OPEC, in 1974, this magnitude turned strongly unfavorable for the developed countries. The reciprocal of the terms of trade will be denoted by τ_D , and the quantity

$$E = X_D - \tau_D (X_{DD} + X_{LD} + X_{CD})$$

will be strongly negative as long as τ_D is significantly greater than unity. It is indicative of the real loss of resources through unfavorable terms of trade. It measures exports less cost of imports, reckoned in export pricing units.

The behavioral assumption is made that savings in the first world will depend on the size of E. With relatively high energy prices, E will generally be negative, and savings will fall. Expressing E as a fraction of output, we assume that the previous long term stable rate of 0.2 will be brought down by the unfavorable terms of trade. That is why we write

$$s = 0.2 + E/Y$$

There are not enough data to determine this relation through a statistically estimated regression; therefore, a simple additive relation has been assumed as a first approximation. As the terms of trade become more unfavorable, cet. par., s will fall, and the

resulting growth rate of output will also fall; both numerator and denominator of

$$r = \frac{s/k}{1-s/k}$$

will tend to fall, if k is unchanged.

The capital-output ratio, however, is not a constant and cannot be assumed generally, to be unchanged. If this ratio and the labor productivity ratio are not assumed to be constant, then there is implicit substitution possible between labor and capital. The production functions are not explicitly introduced into the models, but relations derived from them are. In the models there is separate determination of K and Y; the capital-output ratio is simply the ratio of these two endogenous variables. Similarly, employment and output are separately determined and the labor productivity ratio is simply the ratio of these two endogenous variables. Both ratios move from one time period to the next; this is the essence of the assumption that production takes place with the possibility of substitution. In the D and L models, it is assumed that factors of production are used efficiently. Cost minimization would require that

$$\frac{\partial x/\partial K}{\partial x/\partial L} = \frac{w}{i} ;$$

in other words that the ratios of marginal productivities equal the ratios of unit factor rewards. For a general class of production functions - the CES class - we may write

$$\ln \frac{K}{L} = \sigma_0 + \sigma \ln \left(\frac{W}{1}\right),$$

where σ is the elasticity of substitution between capital and labor. The estimated version of this equation with

$$est \sigma = 0.62738$$

is normalized on K, as

$$\frac{K}{L} = \exp \{ \sigma_0 + \sigma \ln \frac{w}{1} \}$$

$$K = L \exp \{\sigma_0 + \sigma \ln \frac{w}{i}\}$$

in the D area model. The L area case will be discussed later.

K cannot be determined unless L is determined, and the wage rate must be determined in order to determine L. This is the basic idea of simultaneity or interdependence in the D system. It is assumed that the real wage follows labor productivity in the long run and that the participation rate, L/N, is an increasing function of the real wage rate. These are straightforward trend ideas, but no basic distinction is made between labor force and employment; i.e., the cyclical phenomenon of <u>unemployment</u> is ignored. It is not that full employment is assumed. It is simply that the average long run rate of unemployment is accepted as a norm for this system. Unemployment will fluctuate a great deal in the short run, but cyclical dynamics are being left out of this trend system.

The next equation fixes the deflated interest rate at a constant value, 0.06 in the present case. An accepted concept of the real rate of interest is

$$i$$
 - expected $\frac{\Delta p}{p}$

Even if we simplify by making the expected rate of inflation the same as the rate observed in the long run, we would seriously complicate the system by trying to explain both i and $\frac{\Delta p}{p}$ as separate variables. In a long run analysis, where interest focuses on the

next century, it is not meaningful to try to outguess the monetary authorities and set up a framework for jointly estimating i and The inflation rate is used to correct nominal values of i in order to get at real values. An alternative correction is to divide i by p, where p is an index on a fixed base. formally different from subtracting the inflation rate, but achieves a similar correction of movement in i. An interesting concept in the economics literature, known as the Gibson Paradox or the Gibson Effect provides an empirical justification for using $\frac{1}{n}$ as the real rate. 1 A. H. Gibson noted that there is a strong correlation between the nominal interest rate and an index of the price level. correlation has been observed over long periods of time and in different industrial countries. It also stands up well in updating to the present era, looking back as far as the turn of this century. The data that we shall describe in a later section indicate that not only is i a linear function of p, for the first world as a whole, but it is practically proportional. That enables us to write $\frac{1}{n}$ as a constant, and greatly simplifies the presentation. is why we have

$$\frac{i}{p} = 0.06$$

in the D area model.

The equations for the D area are rounded out by writing import requirement functions as proportions of GDP. There is one proportion for each area from which imports are drawn, including the D area itself. With a definition of \mathbf{X}_{D} in terms of bilateral exports,

^{1.} See J. M. Keynes, A Treatise on Money (London: Macmillan, 1930).

Keynes remarked that Gibson's finding "...is one of the most completely established empirical facts within the whole field of quantitative economics ..."

we complete the equations for the first world, D.

We next turn to an explanation of the equations for the third world, L. The basic income generating equation for growth determination is the same as in the D case, but the equations explaining s and k (K) are different. In the third world, E is now positive because the terms of trade, τ_L , have moved strongly in their favor, mainly because of high petroleum prices but partly because of relatively high prices for other basic materials. The effect of $\frac{E}{Y}$ on s has been very tentatively estimated because few observations at the new favorable values of τ_L are available. The historical pattern of s is quite different from that in the previous case. It has not at all been steady but has gradually risen as growth in the developing world has taken place; therefore, per capita growth in real GDP is another variable influencing the savings rate. For a great part of the period since 1960, s has been low for the developing countries and has reached about 0.20 only in recent years.

The capital-output ratio is much lower in the L region than in the D region, but also the elasticity of substitution between labor and capital is much smaller; it is only one-half as large. To a large extent, capital is the limiting factor, and the abundant labor force is drawn upon to work with the scarce capital factor to the extent to which the latter is available. Capital imports for the developing world come not only from the working of the market process but also through grants and loans made by the other sectors, mainly the developed sector. Trade between the developed and developing sectors is assumed to be unbalanced to the extent to which real resources are transferred from the former to the latter. These real

resources are then added to K to augment the process of capital expansion. These real resources are depreciated at the standard rate of 5% per annum assumed for all capital in the L area.

It is interesting to note that in current prices \mathbf{X}_{DL} falls far short of \mathbf{X}_{LD} . This is largely the petrol deficit. In real terms, however, i.e. in 1970 prices, at 1970 exchange rates, \mathbf{X}_{DL} is greater than \mathbf{X}_{LD} . This is the resource transfer that shows how much in real terms the developing countries can buy from the developed countries with their surplus. The variable \mathbf{T}_{DL} is, therefore, a significant policy variable that drives the system, showing how much extra input into capital expansion the developing countries can obtain.

 T_{DL} does not consist entirely of purchases from the petrol fund. It also represents aid that developed countries have traditionally made. A goal has always been to have this aid at one or two percent of the GDP of developed countries. Actual aid has fallen short of that goal by significant amounts, but a policy parameter α is introduced in the L area model to show that T_{DL} depends on Y_{D}

$$\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{DL}} = \alpha \mathbf{Y}_{\mathrm{D}}$$

This gives a significant linkage across models.

To complete the wage-rate/labor sector of the L area model, we introduced a wage equation that depends on productivity, as in the D area model, and a simple trend for the participation rate. There is little point, in the developing world area, in considering the distinction between labor force and employment, as there are no meaningful statistics of unemployment. It is also not as sensible

to think of labor force participation as being responsive to real wage changes; therefore, the participation rate is a simple trend relation, that is apparently drifting downwards at a very slow pace.

The Gibson Effect should prevail for the developing countries in much the same way that it is present in the developed countries, but the factor of proportionality is much lower. It is also not as constant. We have simply used the value toward the end of the sample span as an estimate of the ratio between i and p.

Apart from the special balance of imports and exports with the developed countries through the policy transfer variable \mathbf{T}_{DL} , it is assumed that imports either from the C or L areas are proportional to area GDP.

Modeling of the centrally planned economies is much less developed than for the other two areas. In particular, the process of factor substitution between labor and capital as a function of relative real rewards cannot be implemented. In the first place, there are no available data for the area as a whole on capital charges. There are some data on wage rate and price level, but the resulting estimates of real wage trends are suspect. It appears that real wages grow very slowly, certainly not as fast as productivity. The same real income generating process is used, but the equations for determination of the fundamental coefficients s and k are different. The s coefficient is made a function of the growth of per capita real income. This is sensible and straightforward enough. The savings rate has risen markedly in the C area. The capital-output

ratio is a technological variable and should be given priority for expansion at the present stage of development by the central planning officials. It is growing and should continue to grow, by plan. But there is a deliberate effort to import high technology goods from the D area. The exports from D to C are, therefore, introduced, as a ratio to Y, in the explanation of k. There are few time points for the use of this variable, as the policy of opening up for capital imports has just begun.

Rather than introduce interacting relationships between real wage and employment, we have simply used trend relations for w/p and L/N. As in the developing area model, no distinction is made between labor force and employment. In the case of the centrally planned economies, it is assumed that there is an effective commitment to full employment.

By and large, centrally planned economies have sought to maintain balanced trade, both overall and bilaterally. We have imposed strict bilateral balance with the developing world but allowed for a real resource transfer from the developed to the centrally planned world. This transfer is the counterpart of credits that have been granted from official and banking sources to the centrally planned economies to permit them to finance high technology imports and adjustment to short run harvest disturbances. The variable CR_{DC} is another trade policy variable that has an effect on X_{DC} , which, in turn, influences the capital-output ratio. The C area model is closed by making internal trade, X_{CC} , proportional to GDP.

The trade variables in all three models are merchandise flows. This gives rise to an an accounting issue in the basic GDP identity:

GDP = C + I + (X-M)

C = real consumer expenditures

I = real investment expenditures

X = real exports

M = real imports

X-M = real trade balance.

This balance includes goods and services. Savings are defined as GDP that is not consumed.

S = GDP-C;

therefore exogenous movements in X-M could be driving forces of GDP in the usual sense of export/importmultipliers. That effect does not show up in our models because we have implicitly let net service exports or imports serve as a residual buffer. The trade influences work indirectly in the system through their effects on s and k(K). In each of the area models, these effects have been spelled out through E_D , E_L , τ_D , τ_L , T_{DL} , X_{DC} , and CR_{DC} . Estimation of a world trade matrix of invisibles and fuller integration of the GDP account structure is one way of proceeding to handle this issue.

A TRIAL SIMULATION

A base line simulation to the year 2000 has been worked out to examine the model's properties and possibly to gain some insight about substantive results. In order to simulate the model from 1973 to 2000, it is necessary to supply inputs in the form of initial conditions, exogenous (policy) variables, and selected equation adjustments. The system starts on a correct path, as from 1973.

Assumptions are listed in Table I. Results of the solution are in Table II.

			<u>Table I</u>	
	1973	74-77	<u>78-87</u>	88-2000
τ_{D}	1.0142	1.200	(steps of 0.02 per year to max. 1.4)	1.4
	1973	74-77	<u>78-82</u>	83-2000
$^{ au}_{ extbf{L}}$.936	.646	(steps of .02 per year to max746)	.746
	1973	1974	1975 76-81	82-2000
α	0	.0025	.005 (steps of 005 per yr. to	.02
	1973	1974	max02) <u>75-83</u>	842000
CR _{DC}	4.0	1.0	(steps of 1.0 per yr. to max. 10.0)	10.0
	1973-20	00		
Adjust (w	/p) L	+0.2		
	<u>1974</u>	75-85	<u>1986</u> <u>87-97</u> <u>98-</u>	2000
Adjust k _C	0.3	0.1 per max	yr. to 1.3 -0.1 per yr. to min. 0.0	0.0

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. 1 E	D-GOP37A	1	1	9	E	D-I/P		0 14	1	7 E		L-K/0	1	24	29	Ε	XCL		0	36	33	E	C-W/P	Ø	48
2 E	D-K \$70	9	5	10	E	XDD		0 15	1.1	8 E	:	L-9/GDP	Ø	25	26	E	XLL		0	37	34	ε	C-EMPL	Ø	51
3 E.	D-K/O	9	4	11	E	XLD		0 16	1	9 E	-	L-W/P	1	28	27	E	ХL		Ø	38	35	X	C+POP	1	52
4 E	D-S/GDP	7	5	12	E	XCD		0 17	, 5	0 E	•	L-EMPL	1	31	28	E	TOL		1	39	36	E	XDC	è	53
5 E	D=U/P	(A	Ą	13	F.	XD		0 18	2:	1 X	(L-POP	1	32	29	X	TIME		8	19	37	£	XLC	0	54
6 E	D-EMPL	3	11	14	X	TIME	•	0 19	2	2 E		L-E	9	33	30	E	C.GD	P\$70	1	41	38	E	XCC	Ø	55
7 X	D-POP	Ø	12	15	E	L-GDPS	70	1 21	. 2	3 6	_	L-I/P	8	34	31	E	C-K/	0	8	44	39	Ē	XC	8	56
8 E	i)-E	9	13	16	E	L-K570		1 22	. 2	4 E	:	XDL	0	35	32	E	C+8/	GDP	8	45					
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DYNAMIC SIMULATION

-23

SOLUTION VALUES FOR A DYNAMIC SIMULATION FOR POTENTIAL GNP MODEL FOR

ai T	m		9.69	99.0	0.30	9.94	1.42	1.92	12,451	3,01	3,59	4.20	4.63	9.49	6.17	6.66	7.62	6.40	9.22	99.0	66.0	1.95	2,97	4.04	9.17	6.37	7.63	8.98	0,40	1,98
. 11	L	_	9.0	4.	2.3	4.7	7.1	9	62,237	5.0	7:0	-	7		9.0	7	7	9.3	•	00.4	0.40	1,60	14.0	20.2	25.0	31.8	36.1	44.9	P.	39.5
9	ш	00x	30,2	39,4	49,3	89.9	71.2	83.1	295,719	80.0	22.8	37.2	92.3	67.9	84.2	91.0	19.6	37.0	36,5	77.0	9:06	21.À	45.5	70.9	97.8	26,3	36.4	86.4	22.0	57.0
•	L	1	9.00	90.	• 06	96	90	90.	9.00	986	.06	98.	.06	.06	. 86	.06	90.	.06	900	90.	96	98.	.06	90	.06	900	989	98	901	96
•0	le i	0 • E	0.91	6.39	9.19	34,76	28,26	28.32	-28,427	26,58	37,26	46.74	97.09	69,24	82,37	96:48	111,62	116.98	122,63	128,56	134,86	141.49	148.49	155,88	163.69	171196	160,70	189,96	199,77	210.17
^	×	4	32,98	90.00	99.41	36.94	18.59	26.34	838,222	19.21	36.32	58.55	18.91	99.38	96.66	10.71	21.573	52.539	13.67	34.924	56,300	17.826	39,483	91.278	13.213	25.291	37,913	19,861	52,396	13.868
•	L	-EMP	03.98	M5.26	86.85	98.48	10.16	11.88	113,639	15.44	17.28	19.16	21.07	23,03	25.02	27.05	29.12	31,25	33.42	35,66	37,95	40.30	42,72	45,286	47,758	50,363	93,083	55,863	56,72	61,675
ın	w	\	114	147	179	213	249	287	1,326	366	468	450	494	538	583	628	678	723	773	825	878	934	992	052	114	+179	. 246	.316	388	.464
7	w	9/8	.29	.18	.18	. 18	•19	19	0.191	. 19	. 18	.18	87.	. 18	.18	17	17	.17	17	.17	17	17	17	.17	. 17	-1	17	.17	.17	17
M	u	$\stackrel{\checkmark}{\sim}$. 72	6.8	.	.61	.57	25	488	44	40	36	32	. 28	. 24	6.	17	. 13	60	.05	20.	.98	94	9	.86	.83	.79	7.5	~	67
nu.	لنا	1,X,56	54,36	17.7	05,53	14,77	96.98	38,42	70.157	63.30	72.67	98.43	41.57	91.09	77.57	71.32	A2.64	70.05	05,02	78.96	43,52	60.35	51,51	78.30	13.41	18.86	97.02	90.39	31.74	23.97
-	ы	C)	3,352 11	1,0119 11	5,158 12	5.324 12	5. HOR 13	3.455 13	112,854 139	2,705 14	3,520 14	7, 479 15	4.776 16	3.369 16	4-410 17	7, 100 17	3,603 19	3.8A6 19	5,573 19	05 515	8. RB2 21	8,997 21	2.510 22	3.318 23	5,391 24	2,771 25	7,508 26	5.062 27	3.508 28	7.357 29
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	24	LLI	겁	8,46	3,02	2.19	2.09	7.2	84,31	16,73	30,10	35,94	42,01	48,35	54,93	61,77	68,88	76,26	84,03	92,22	08.85	209,955	19,36	29,78	40,41	51,73	63,71	76,38	89,88	04.02	19,89
	23	w	\	0.02	.02	. 82	. 82	-02	50.	20.	. 02	.02	20.	.82	.02	. 02	102	.02	.02	. 02	40.	6,020	.02	.02	.02	102	90.	30.	20.	9	. 82
	25		¥	.24	7,43	4.23	0.77	96.9	.05	7,90	17,60	21,12	25,61	26,12	27,87	29,05	38,28	31,54	32,69	34,24	35,68	-37,201	38,78	40,43	42,14	43,88	45,66	47.44	49.81	56.95	92,91
•	8 1	×	04	748,00	793,20	838,96	683,89	934,82	983,37	633,99	862.98	139,13	193,72	249,71	307,12	366,00	426,38	488,30	931,88	616,92	683,71	2752,203	822,44	894,46	966,33	044,08	t21,77	201,44	283+14	366,93	432+85
!	8 0		TEMP	11,35	85,60	12,82	16,11	19,44	22,81	26,23	59,65	33,21	36,77	40,38	43.04	45,75	48,51	51,33	34,20	51,12	60,10	163,141	66,23	69,38	72,39	73.86	79,19	82.28	96,04	89.56	93,14
	19	w	≥	1.20	24	.26	.28	.30	.32	34	33	.36	.37	.38	.40	42	43	. 45	. 47	• 49	25.	1.536	5.5	.38	.61	• 64	99.	27.	• 76	8	. 89
	18	m	3/6	75.0	24	22	2	20	18	.16	. 14	13	.12	. 12	.12	.12	.12	. 12	12	. 12	.13	0,131	.13	.13	. 13	.13	. 13	. 33	. 1	₹.	• 14
	17	wi	2	3.25	66.	.89	.81	.75	7.	.70	.71	.73	• 75	•76	,75	.74	.73	.71	.68	•66	.63	2,599	5,2	• 52	43	33	.24	1.	.04	.93	. 82
ec ec	16		* X 3 7	57,36	61,97	29,38	504.78	588,41	679.94	779.43	886.99	995.44	104.45	214,79	315,53	417.98	522,30	658,69	737,38	848,62	962.67	3079,837	200,40	324.71	391,32	461,32	535,17	613,43	696.84	786,36	863,35
FOR	51	ندز	-60P	17.414	54.45	93.52	34.40	76.77	18,32	57.82	93.91	29.62	64.68	01.39	39.88	86.61	23,71	69,45	018,10	86.690	125,43	1184,888	248,81	17.78	394 23	479,60	575,74	982,06	810.86	957,70	132,18
	14	×	X	4.00	5.30	90.00	7.40	8.00	00.6	0.00	1.04	2.00	3.00	4.90	5.00	6.00	7.00	8,119	98.6	80.0	1,00	. 42.000	3.00	4.00	5.99	6.09	7.00	8.00	9.80	90.0	1.00
	1.2	نعا	=	93.37	13.60	34.08	55.98	79.44	34.38	30.90	50.12	A 13 . 39	92.51	25.55	48,39	72.17	96.87	12.55	49.52	77,47	96,70	739.595	76.51	98.20	45.43	84.7B	26.39	70.43	17.96	66, 17	1A. A.S
				73	74	75	4	11	9	6/	S	9 .	25	83	34	85	86	47	88	83	4	1 1661	95	M	7.0	95	96	2	98	666	G.

SOLUTION VALUES FOR A DYNAMIC SIMULATION FOR POTENTIAL GNP MODEL

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35	×	9	165,6	164,8	202.9	222,1	241.7	261.5	201,7	302,2	323,1	344.2	365.7	387.6	489.8	432.3	1455,292		306.00	558.6	575,4	9 9 9 9 9	626,2	6526,2	676,7	705,9	738,6	760,5	78817
34	ئما	Ŧ	87,3	10,2	13,3	16.4	19.5	22.0	26.1	29.5	32,9	36.3	40.1	43.0	47.6	51.4	430,444	***	67.8	72.	76.3	61.0	85.6	200	95.2	100	1750	10.8	13,0
33	ш	۴	.0	5	.01	18.		5	. 62	. 02	. 02	40.	. 82	95	9	9	77 O	7 6	9 6	93	.03	į	184	404	104	Š	.04	• 84	50.
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31	نها	$\stackrel{L}{\sim}$			٠.	8	₹	Ŋ	M	4	ູ	•		•	•	•	4.735	•		N	7	•	٠.	•	•	ູ	4	ň	Ŋ
30	ذييا	-60P	014,31	18.160	172,50	256,30	343,34	433,71	527,47	654,69	725,46	829,83	937.88	050.15	166,71	293,04	2430.236	7.4.04	978.46	115.62	330,08	566,41	827,62	117,21	439,37	799.04	202,11	628,69	121:00
53	×	_	4	u.	•	~	8	9	0	-	N	m	4	En .	•	~	30.000	7 6	•	·N	m	4	S	•	~	8	•	0	-
88	Ш		<u>6</u>	ın																									
		1 0L	9.0	2,60	9.68	7.36	5.68	4.70	4.47	5.05	7.97	1.01	4.17	7.46	98.0	4.44	86,132	9 -	4.42	4.97	9.18	4.85	6.20	5.86	1,85	8.19	4.90	2.01	9.54
7.5	ial.	<u>-</u>	6.543 B.A	2.234 12.6B	6.192 19.68	0.378 27.36	4.787 35.68	9.289 44.7U	3,832 54,47	8,362 65,05	02.992 67.97	07,715 71,01	12.638 74.17	17.782 77.46	23_158 80,88	28,780 84,44	6,13		14 448 199.42	61.852 104.97	69,723 189,78	78,104 114,85	87.130 120.20	96,889 125,86	07,491 131,85	19,075 138,19	31.823 144.98	45,980 152,01	61,888 159,54
75 95	.11	ا. ×۱. ۲	. ሱላዓ 68 5 ዓን ወ. በ	5,406 72,234 12,60	7,273 76,192 19,68	8,734 86,378 27,36	N.187 84.787 35.68	1.642 89.289 44.78	3.424 93.832 54.47	4.287 98.362 65.05	5.537 102.992 67.97	6.764 107,715 71.01	8.046 112.638 74.17	9.396 117.782 77.46	3,821 123,158 80,88	2,330 128,780 84,44	34,666 88,13	3,034 148,081 48,681	0.390 154 408 169.40	1.471 161.852 104.97	3.709 169,723 189,78	6,122 178,104 114,85	8.798 187.130 120.20	1.786 196.889 125.86	5.151 207,491 131,85	8.977 219,075 138,19	3,380 231,623 144,98	A.520 245,980 152,01	4.624 261.888 159.54
N	111	ר אור אור או	ટહ 14.649 68.5 મ3 છ . લ	. 908 15, 906 72, 234 12, 60	.416 17,273 76,192 19,68	.947 18,734 86,378 27,36	.498 20.187 84.787 35.68	. 03 21.642 89.289 44.78	.552 23,624 93,832 54,47	. MP1 24.287 98.362 65.05	.485 25.537 102,992 67.97	.941 26.764 107.715 71.01	417 28 846 112 638 74.17	.918 29,396 117,782 77,46	.448 33,821 123,158 80,88	. 208 32,330 128,780 84,44	3.931 134.666 88.13	2,2,2 13,034 140,087 45,61	2 4 1 39 39 134 448 184 48	404 41 471 161 852 184,97	6.235 43.709 169.723 189.78	7,131 46,122 178,104 114,85	8,125 48,798 187,130 128,28	9.235 51.786 196,889 125,86	0.485 55.151 207,491 131,85	1.906 58.977 219.075 138.19	3.541 63,380 231,823 144,98	5.450 68.520 245,980 152.01	7,717 74,624 261,888 159,54

SULUTION VALUES FOR A DYNAMIC SIMULATION FOR POTENTIAL GNP MODEL. FOR

	47		9.30	5.50	5.80	9.19	5.64	6,21	9.88	3.69	7.66	1.79	6.22	96.13	6.12	61.69	57.70	14.29	21.44	29,26	37,85	47,33	57.84	69, 52	2.57	97.24	13,40
ກິນ		-	2	3.58	5.84	A.18	0.61	3.13	5.74	0.44	1.25	4.16	7.32	9.75	4.4R	8.56	3.01	7.89	3,25	9.16	5.69	2.93	98.0	76.6	0.05	1.39	3.17
M L		•	. 6	67	22	٠	ر :.	448	76.	0.41	0.5	1.44	2.00	64.5	3.23	3.91	4.63	5.45	5 6 9	7.13	8.12	9.23	9.48	1.93	, r.	5.45	7.71
	~ 1	1974 1	~	\sim	-	~	Œ	œ	90	œ	0	8	8	œ	Œ	ᅂ	T	O-	œ.	0	σ	0	ō	0	Ç	C	S

This is, in fact a base line scenario; therefore, the script writers' choices for inputs need explanation. The estimate of τ_D and τ_L for 1973/74 are from observed data, as well as these can be estimated. They reflect the large increase in oil prices in 1974, following a general rise in basic commodity prices, against the developed countries, in 1973. The 1973 rises were on a modest scale. After 1974, there have been some further increases in oil prices, but not enough to protect OPEC (and developing countries, as a whole) against dollar depreciation, with inflation in the D area. We, therefore, bring up τ_L gradually after 1974 to show that the developing countries have not held to their maximum gains on terms of trade. The relative prices τ_D and τ_L should not be pure reciprocals of each other because this is a 3-area world, but they should bear approximate resemblance to a reciprocal relationship; therefore, τ_D is moved up to be closer to $1/\tau_L$.

The share of developed countries' GDP transferred to developing countries have rarely satisfied the latter's targets. In 1973, the bilateral accounts were in near balance; therefore, we gradually increased aid to a target of 2.0%. In 1977-78, it falls well below 2%, but that level is a maximum that OPEC pricing plus North-South dialogue seem capable of extracting. That governs our choice of 2.0 as an upper limit.

In 1973, the Soviet grain failure (of 1972) led to a large credit in trade with the D area. This was cut back to a more normal level of 1.0 billion (1970 dollars) and then increased in a gradual trend to a maximum of \$10 billion.

Two equations appeared to need adjustment in order to set the solution off in the right neighborhood. The real wage rate in developing countries was estimated from a loose-fitting equation and started from a low value that did not pick up the jump in wages as OPEC funds flowed into the L area. We, therefore, added 0.2 to the index value of w/p. The scenario results for $k_{\rm C}$ showed a steady decline of the capital-output ratio. This is contrary to central planners' targets. We adjusted the equation upwards to reach a maximum of 5.0 by 1985, assuming that direct planning could achieve that add-on. This keeps the centrally planned economies on a plausible growth path with capital expansion.

The estimated expansion rate for the D area's GDP is 4.5%. This compares with an estimate of 4.6% in the whole period 1950-74. Starting from 1960, eliminating the period of reconstruction in Japan and Western Europe, the rate to 1974 was 4.8%; therefore, a significant slowdown is projected as compared with the period of fast growth, but the rate is projected to return to a longer run normal rate - not necessarily a reduced rate.

Much interest attaches to the growth rate estimate because it is generally felt that expensive energy, limits of exhaustible resources, and environmental problems may lead to a slow growth pattern for OECD countries, much below historical averages. This model simulation does not come near a rate as low as 4.0% for the rest of the century; it does indicate a slower rate for the postembargo decade, 1973-83, at 4.3%, picking up slightly in the next decade.

The determinants of growth are the strategic ratios s and k. The former is limited in this model by E/Y. The terms of trade favoring OPEC vs. the OECD make s smaller than its long run average rate of about 0.20 and restrains growth, especially in this decade. Working against the lower value of s is a lower value of k, indicative of technical progress. A falling value of k makes for faster growth. Going further into the model we notice that a relatively high wage/capital rate would make for a larger value of k and slower growth. The falling value of k in the sample period-1950-74 amounted to a drop of 1.1 points. In the 24 years after 1974, the corresponding drop is not quite one full point.

The real resource transfer, shown by the variable E, is strongly negative for the entire simulation period. The terms of trade could reverse through political or economic developments. If so, the value of E could even change sign and bring up the savings rate to 0.2 or more. This would put the OECD area on a faster growth track again.

GDP in the L area expands by 6.2% in this scenario to the year 2000. This is a target of the United Nations and may seem to be quite favorable; however, their target refers specifically to the non-OPEC part of the developing world. OPEC nations are included in the L group and are expected to grow at a rate significantly in excess of 6%; therefore, the rate indicated here is slightly below target for the whole developing world. Historically they grew at 5.5% from 1960 up to the time of the high commodity prices and oil embargo of 1973. If we extend the historical period through 1974, the overall rate is about 6%. All in all, the scenario projection

is modest for the less developed countries.

Their saving rate had been growing strongly in the 1960's and early 70's. It remains well above 0.20 in the scenario until 1977 and then falls fairly steadily through the 1980's, reviving a bit in the 1990's. The fall is induced by a decline in their E/Y value. The OPEC nations have already turned out to have a prodigious appetite for imports and are expected to continue buying abroad. Even though the terms of trade was estimated to remain in their favor, imports rise faster than exports at a rate that brings down E and the savings rate. This restrains growth.

The capital-output ratio falls, and this helps to maintain their growth rate. This rate rose in the 1960's and early 70's. The usual pattern, expected for the L area, would be an increasing k ratio as infrastructure investment is built up. It would then fall with technical progress after the initial build-up is completed. This pattern would induce slower growth, followed by faster growth. Our model pattern works out differently in the scenario. The estimated value of k falls by more than one full point in the 27 year period following 1973.

There is good growth in the real wage rate but much less than in the D group of countries.

The centrally planned economies are estimated to grow at 6.9%, somewhat higher than their historical performance since 1955, at about 5.55%. In the C area, the Eastern European countries in CMEA have consistently grown, as a group, at a rate above the Soviet Union's. Strong future growth of the CMEA group should help to

maintain a fairly high growth rate for the whole C area, but it is necessary to consider the position of China, as well, in judging the overall plausibility of the area's growth rate. China had some years of very slow growth, thus holding down the historical rate, but there is every reason to believe that the China rate, now on a path above 7%, will continue to exhibit firm growth. For these reasons, we can accept the estimated results from the base case scenario as plausible.

Over the historical sample period, the savings ratio grew for the centrally planned economies; this promotes growth. There is a slight tendency for this ratio to grow in the scenario after the mid 1980's, but it sags up to that point. By and large, however, the ratio is nearly constant. The other key ratio, capital/output, would show a falling tendency, steadily over the scenario period were it not for the exogenous imposition of some early increases. The falling tendency is indicative of technical progress, but, as in the LDC case, we would first expect a rise prior to a fall. The rise would represent a continuing process of building up an infrastructure.

A marginal calculus of capital requirements does not seem to be appropriate for the model of the C area. We have used this calculus for specifying capital-labor substitution in the O and L areas. Instead of relying on the marginal calculus, we infused some arbitrary increments that would be typical of the central planning authority's goals for capital expansion. These were superimposed on the relation that made the capital/output ratio a function

of shipments from the developed to the centrally planned areas.

A significant part of their shipments will consist of capital goods flows. The other relationships in this model are largely trends in real wage rate and labor force participation. Neither of these plays a key role in the C model. The statistics on real wage in the centrally planned group are suspect as intuitive insight would suggest that historical gains in the real wage rate were higher than estimated.

Trade flows of the C area countries are heavily oriented toward the main developed area markets and developing country markets, too. We are assuming here that an attempt is made to keep bilateral flows in balance, but some slippage occurs as the USSR (and others) try to secure credits to import beyond the amounts determined by bilateral balance.

A strategic variable in the D area model is the rate of return on capital i (nominal) or i/p (real). For the scenario, following the <u>Gibson Paradox</u>, we made i/p fixed at 0.06. The sensitivity of the system to changes in i/p are shown by consideration of a drop to 0.055. In this case, GDP is a great deal lower by 2000. It is only \$7365.1 billion compared with \$7977.4 billion in the base case. The growth rate falls to 4.2%; this is significantly below the historical rate of 4.6%. It is through less manifest technical progress, i.e., a drop in the capital-output ratio, that the growth slowdown occurs.

GDP values in the L and C areas are greater by 2000 in this alternative case. In the developing countries, the capital output ratio is lower and the savings rate higher. These make for faster

growth, reaching a final figure that is higher by 10%. Centrally planned GDP is also higher, but only slightly so.

If employment is adjusted somewhat higher in the D area in order to make the 1973-74 values line up better with observations, and if these adjustments are retained for the remainder of the horizon, there is more capital investment, a higher capital-output ratio, and a smaller GDP value for the D area. The developing country GDP value is slightly higher, but the C area value is practically unchanged.

Enhancement of the System

This has admittedly been a first attempt at building a self-contained global economic model with simulation capabilities to the end of the century. This aspect of the present study has already been noted in the opening pages. What are the next steps in making the system better suited to this end? A number of studies are already underway and others are contemplated.

The first study for system improvement is to re-evaluate the area totals, i.e., the developed, centrally planned, and less developed area aggregates of GDP, investment, trade, and related variables. The re-evaluation will be to substitute price conversion factors, drawn from the pioneering study of I. B. Kravis and associates, for official exchange rates in making up cross-country aggregates in a common unit of measurement. In many respects, the

^{1.} I. B. Kravis, A. Heston and R. Summers, <u>International Comparisons</u> of Real Product and Purchasing Power, (Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1978).

Kravis factors are superior as descriptive measures, and it remains to be seen what effect their use has on econometric system properties.

Any long run model ought to treat population and associated demographic variables as endogenous. In the near future, equations for N_D , N_C , N_L will be introduced, together with other demographic variables that are needed in order to close the system. Interaction between demographic and economic variables will be introduced.

If the system is to be used for energy analysis, it is important to introduce energy trade explicitly in the world trade matrices. At the same time, area energy requirements and supplies should be modeled explicitly. It is quite possible that a separate OPEC grouping, as a component of the less developed area, will be needed. In any event, some energy modeling is called for.

It was shown above that estimates of trade in invisibles was implied, on a net basis, as a residual for each major area, by virtue of the standard national accounting identity. Direct estimation of invisible flows, preferably on a bilateral basis, would be a better approach for these items. The first thing to do would be to prepare a trade matrix of invisibles. Some data are available for this purpose, but it is certain that some heroic assumptions will have to be made in order to determine complete matrices of these trade items. Aspects of debt service will be included in the flows of invisibles, and this is an important process to analyze in long term simulations.

At the moment, it appears that energy trade is of crucial importance. It surely is, and will probably remain so for years

to come; nevertheless, other primary commodities should also be given explicit attention. Primary products of agriculture and mines are particularly significant; therefore, trade matrices and associated bilateral flows of basic commodities, with market determined prices, should be introduced on both supply and demand sides. In keeping with the global nature of this system, it would seem best to start with trade in agricultural commodities and in mineral commodities.

The sample data used in this study extend through 1974. It took more than one year to prepare them, estimate and simulate the system. By now, new data are available. The underlying series should be revised and up-dated. Then the whole system should be re-estimated. As an alternative to the elementary time series estimation used for determining the numerical parameter values in the present study, it is sensible to experiment with another method of estimation, namely cross-section estimation. Within an area, say the D area, it would be possible to estimate the underlying relationships from cross-country variations. These should then be compared with the estimates obtained from time series variation. Or it would be possible to pool time series of cross sections in larger samples. At any rate, there is much scope for consideration of alternatives in estimation methodology.

At the same time the data are extended to more recent years, they can be reorganized for a more careful attempt to include all the elements of the savings-investment identity. A more faithful modeling of this identity to allow for depreciation and variation

of k in computing net investment will be considered.

Finally, the convenient assumption that the terms of trade are exogenous – determined largely by OPEC decisions now – is not legitimate. In the long run, the variables τ_D , τ_L should respond to market prices. This is particularly true in non-energy markets. As the trade matrix is disaggregated, separate determination of terms of trade becomes more pressing.

The system was kept compact, partly for expositional reasons and partly for experimental reasons. An "explanation" of the world economy in just 35 equations is overdoing compactness. All the suggestions for elaboration, revision, and improvement of the system would add equations and make it larger. They would not, however, put the system beyond simplified analytical reach. Instead of being a very simple system, it would become a moderately small system of fewer than 100 equations. The programming and computer use would remain essentially minimal, nothing like the 5,000 equation LINK system in complexity of structure or difficulty of management.

(I) The Variables

The three region model is composed of three separate econometric models, one for each region, linked together via trade relationships. The structure of the model for each region is rather simple - a multiplier accelerator (or Harrod-Domar) model with trading relations.

The aggregate variables used satisfy the basic GDP definition as follows:

Commission of the

GDP = PC + GC + I + (X-M)= C + I + (X-M) = C + S

GDP = gross domestic product

PC = private consumption

GC = government consumption

I = gross investment or gross capital formation

X = export (goods/services)

M = import (goods/services)

C = consumption (equal to PC plus GC)

S = savings

The separation of government spending into consumption and investment was not always possible. This problem occurred most frequently in the case of developing countries.

The aggregate production function requires use of other variables of the regional economy, capital stock and employment or labor-force. If employment data are not available or not reliable, labor force data can be used.

Data of employment for some less developed countries are scanty. In order to maintain consistency in aggregation over countries, the working population is, in some cases, a preferable substitute for employment. This statistic is usually available.

Corresponding to the output and factor services supplied in the economy, there are three highly aggregate prices, namely, (1) the general price level of the economy which is estimated by the GDP deflator; (2) the wage rate and (3) the interest rate to show the return on capital.

The last variable in the list is the exchange rate. It is expressed in terms of local currency vs. the U.S. dollar. Using exchange rates to obtain internationally comparable data is subject to established arguments in the literature about purchasing power parity. However, the argument is not wholly applicable in our case, since only the base year's exchange rate is employed. Thus the problem boils down to a choice of which year is one of equilibrium for all countries. It is possible that a single year's base is not appropriate.

II. Data Sources

We restrict ourselves to some specific data sources in order to obtain maximum comparability and consistency.

The data are mainly from publications of the United Nations (UN); the World Bank (WB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Labor Office (ILO). In addition to these, the data for centrally planned economies are taken from publications of U.S. government agencies and supplemented by works of individual research scholars.

Countries or areas are classified, in principle, according to the U.N. Statistical Yearbook (1976) for the purpose of foreign trade statistics, so that we can manipulate the international trade matrices easily without much adjustment due to misclassification of country. The composition of major areas and regions in the world are shown in Table 1, which combines economic, together with

geographical classification, criteria. The number of countries or areas in each region for the present study's purposes is indicated separately in Table 2.

Data for the variables concerned are collected in the first step, country by country, from the stated sources. These are shown in Table 3.

Here it should be noted that, for the centrally planned economies, the market adjustment mechanism works differently. Therefore a kind of material product system which is apparently different from that in market economies is employed as their national accounting system. In that system, net material product used as an indicator of total output in the CPE, excludes most services, for example, a substantial portion of transportation, communication and government services. These services are thought to be non-productive, while in the national account statistics of the individual market economies, these are part of GNP or GDP. Furthermore, defense expenditures are located in accumulation and consumption accounts, for instance, in the USSR.

Because of these differences in the material product system prevalent in CPE's, different sources of data are employed so as to give rise to a set of roughly comparable data across regions.

The main sources for the CPE area are listed below:

- (2) Eastern Europe T.P. Alton "Economic Structure and Growth in Eastern Europe"; "Comparative Structure and Growth of Economic Activity in Eastern Europe" in the Joint Economic Committee's "East European Economies Post-Helsinki" (8/25/77) U.S. Congress
- (3) China, People's Republic of L. J. Lau, W.W.F. Choa, W.L. Lim and J.D. Shea "An Econometric Model of China" (Jan. 1978); CIA: "China: Economic Indicators" (Oct. 1977)
- (4) Cuba CIA "The Cuban Economy, A Statistical Review, 1968-76"

The detailed source for each variable is indicated in Table 3 for CPE.

III. Aggregation and Aggregates

As our final interest is to set up a world model by integrating the separate macro models of each region through trade interrelationships, the raw material obtained from the various sources for each country has to be aggregated over constituent countries in each region to get the regional figures.

Before making the aggregation, we must note two major issues:

- (1) Comparability and consistency of the data and of the calculation method
- (2) The internal characteristic of individual countries in each region.

The source of difficulty in achieving strict comparability and consistency of the data base varies. It might be due to a different accounting system from which the data are generated. For example, for national income and product statistics, three basic systems are currently used. They are the U.N. System of National Accounts (SNA), the French System and the Material Product System (MPS). It might be due to different statistical bases on which data are collected. Three types of statistics are used among countries to construct employment data, according to ILO's Yearbook of Labor Statistics (1976), namely, statistics of compulsory social insurance, labor force sample surveys, and statistics of establishments. These are only examples of heterogeneity. The comparability of data is made worse by the differences between countries, and even within a country, as regards details of definition used, and methods of collection and tabulation.

Internal characteristics of each country can vary fundamentally. Some countries are industry-centered, others are agriculture-centered. Some are well endowed with resources, while others are poor. There are also differences in social cultural backgrounds.

To cope with the problems raised by the above differences, several rules of thumb are followed:

(1) We adhere to the same data source as closely as possible. We assume that each given source, to some extent, is consistent in the way it manipulates the data.

- (2) If the consistency of data is questionable, then an index rather than the absolute figure for the variable concerned is calculated. The cases of wage and employment in indexes are two good examples.
- (3) A proportional splicing method usually is used to get around the inconsistency due to changes of versions regarding the same data.

If time series of some specific variable have different figures resulting from changes of base coverage or concept, each version might end up with a different year as its base year. In this case, the following formula is applied to obtain a set of consistent series.

$$\frac{I \stackrel{c}{i}}{I \stackrel{p}{i}} \times I \stackrel{p}{j} = I \stackrel{c}{j}$$

$$i \neq j$$

$$i, j = 1, ..., t$$

Where I^P denotes an index from the previous version, while I^C stands for the current version; and i and j denote different time periods. Specifically, j is the bridge year.

(4) The weighted average method is a handy way to take into account some of the internal characteristics of the individual country. The weight can be real GDP share, for instance, for calculating regional GDP deflators; or population share for wage indexes. 1

By following these rules of thumb, we can hopefully obtain data with minimal distortions. Let us describe the regional aggregates.

In dealing with international data, exchange rates must come into play. We are mainly interested in economic relationships in real terms. The variation of exchange rates resulting from speculation in the foreign exchange market, or from domestic economic conditions should accordingly be factored out, as well as changes resulting from inflationary fluctuations in the world economy.

Therefore, all the macro variables are converted from current values in terms of local currency into constant priced values in terms of U.S. dollars. Here, two steps are involved in conversion:

- (1) 1970 is the base year for our calculations, and the 1970 exchange rate is used. Since the base year should reflect a normal situation in the international economy, and the sample periods span 1950 74 for the D region, 1960 74 for L region and 1955 74 for the C region, 1970 is selected because it is well within the period and also widely used as a base year for U.N. statistics.
- (2) The aggregate figures derived from 1970 exchange rates at current prices in U.S. dollars are deflated then by each country's own GDP deflator on a 1970 base to get the corresponding figures at constant prices in 1970 U.S. dollars.

^{1.} Population rather than employment share is chosen mainly because the availability of data is more frequent for the former than the latter; meanwhile, we assume that the labor participation rate stays fairly constant over time.

Figures of the regional aggregative variables, such as GDP, C, I, S, etc., for market economies are simply the summations of the corresponding figure over member countries of the same region.

The regional price indexes for these economies are derived in a specific way. All of them are the weighted average of the corresponding figures of individual countries. The only variation occurs in the weights used. The weights for regional GDP and wage rates are real GDP and population shares, respectively. Note that the weights vary over time. In deriving the regional interest rate, the weight is the real GDP of 1970 for all years of the sample period.

A particularly difficult aggregate to construct was capital stock. They were all calculated from the recursive formula.

$$K_{t} = K_{t-1} + I_{t} - D_{t}$$

The implementation of this formula required two parameters - the initial value of capital, K_{\odot} , and the rate of depreciation

$$D_t = \delta K_{t-1}$$

The initial value of K was computed for each region from an independent external estimate of the capital/output (incremental capital output ratio (ICOR)) ratio, given an associated value of GDP for the initial time period. It strains reliability to use the ICOR ratio for the capital output ratio because this proxy measure can sometimes be erratic. Its use results in rather high average values for the ratio. The depreciation rates were judgmentally set as follows:

 $\delta = 0.10$, D area

 $\delta = 0.05$, L area

 $\delta = 0.07$, C area

As noted above, data sources for the CPE are different from those for market economies; the aggregation procedure, therefore, is different. They are as follows:

- (1) Since only indexes of GNP for given sources are collected, the regional GNP for CPE is derived in two steps. First, the weighted average of the corresponding GNP indexes of each CMEA country with 1970 real GNP as weight is calculated. We then used the CIA's estimates of real GNP for total CPE to convert them into absolute figures.
- (2) Except for the regional wage rate for CPE which is derived in the same way as for market economies, the other regional aggregates, such as S/GNP, I/GNP and the GNP deflator are the weighted average of the corresponding figure of each member country of CPE with 1970's real GNP shares as fixed weights.

The data on real wage rate for CPE show no growth from 1955 to 1974. In the middle of this series, there is a small decline and and recovery. One may well be suspicious of this time series pattern, but the average for the area comes from published U.N. series on industrial wage rates. These rates produce the (surprising) nogrowth result. This is clearly a data problem of concern that merits additional research investigation.

^{1.} It is judged, after detailed comparison between Alton, CIA and World Bank estimates of real GNP for individual CPE countries, that CIA's estimates are most reliable on the grounds that (1) they are calculated on the basis of purchasing power parity, and that (2) the estimate for Hungary is much closer to what is shown in the International Comparison Project by Kravis, Heston & Summers. Hungary was one of the participating countries in this sample.

ECONOMIC/GEOGRAPHIC COMPOSITION Table 1.

OF THE WORLD *

Developed Market Economies

Africa: South Africa

Northern America: Canada, United States; Bermuda, Greenland, St. Pierre & Miquelon

Asia: Israel, Japan, Turkey

Europe:

Belgium, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, United Kingdom

Austria, Faeroe Islands, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland

Other: Leichtenstein, Monaco; Andorra, Gibraltar, Greece, Holy See, Malta, San Marino, Spain, Yugoslavia; Channel Islands, Isle of Man, Svalbard & Jan Mayen Islands

Oceania: Australia, New Zealand

Less Developed Market Economies

Africa:

Northern Africa: Algeria, Egypt, Libyan Arab Republic, Morocco,

Sudan, Tunisia, <u>Western Sahara</u>
Western Africa: Bernin, <u>Cape Verde</u>, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, <u>Guinea</u>-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, St. Helena, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Upper Volta

Eastern Africa: British Indian Ocean Territory, Burundi, Comoros, Ethiopia, French Territory of the Afars & the Issas, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Reunion, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia, Southern Rhodesia, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia.

Angola, Central African Republic, Chad, Middle and Southern Africa: Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Sao Tome & Principe, United Republic of Cameroon, Zaire; Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland, French Southern & Antarctic Territories.

*Countries without underlines are included in the data bank; while countries with one underline are those that are not included in the data bank though their GNP in U.S. dollars can be obtained from the World Bank Atlas; and countries with two underlines are all others.

European Economic Community

European Free Trade Association

LAFTA: Latin American Free Trade Association

CACM: Central American Common Market

Source: "1976 Statistical Yearbook," United Nations, p. 9.

Table 1. (cont.)

America:

LAFTA: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela

CACM: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua,
Caribbean America: Antiqua, Bahama, Barbados, British Virgin Islands,
Cayman Islands, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada,
Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, Montserrat, Netherlands
Antilles, Puerto Rico, St. Kitts-Nevis-Anquilla, St. Lucia,
St. Vincent, Trinidad & Tobago, Turks & Caicos Islands,
United States Virgin Islands

Other Southern & Middle America: French Guiana, Guyana, Surinam;
Belize, Canal Zone, Panama; British Antarctic Territory;
Falkland Islands (Malvinas)

Asia:

Asian Middle East: Bahrain, Cyprus, Democratic Yemen, Iran, Iraq,
Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Neutral Zone, Qatar, Saudi
Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, United Arab Emirates, Yemen
Eastern Asia: Hong Kong, Macau, Republic of China, Republic of Korea
Southern Asia: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldivers,
Nepal, Pakistan, Sri-Lanka; Brunei, Burma, Democratic
Kampuchea, East Timor, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic
Republic, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand;
Palestine (Gaza Strip), Kymer Republic

Oceania:

Melanesia: <u>New Caledonia</u>, <u>New Hebrides</u>, <u>Norfold Island</u>, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands

Polynesia & Micronesia: American Samoa, Canton & Enderbury Islands,
Christmas Islands, Cocas (Keeling) Islands, Cook Islands,
Fiji, French Polynesia, Gilbert Islands, Guam, Johnston
Island, Midway Islands, Nauru, Niue Island, Pacific Islands,
Pitcairn Island, Tokelau Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, Wake Island,
Wallis & Futuna Islands, Western Samoa

Centrally Planned Economies

America: Cuba

Asia: Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Mongolia, People's

Republic of China, Socialist Republic of Viet-Nam

Europe: Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, German Democratic

Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Union of Soviet Socialist

Republics

Table 2. COMPOSITION OF DATA BANK AND THE WORLD

Developed Market Economies	Data Bank	The World				
Africa	1	1				
America	2	5				
Asia	3	3				
Europe	20	30				
Oceania	2	2				
Sub-Total	28	41				
Less Developed Market Economies						
Africa	40	56				
America	23	45				
Asia	22	39				
Oceania	2	26				
Sub-Total	87	166				
Centrally Planned Economies						
America	1	1				
Asia	1	4				
Europe & USSR	7	8				
Sub-Total	9	13				
Total	1.24	220				

Table 3. REFERENCES FOR DATA

	•			
	Observation	Title of		Reference
Variable	Period	Publication	Publisher	Issue
GDP, GDP Deflator	1950-56	Yearbook of	UN	"1957-58"
Private Consumption		National		
Government Consumpt		Accounts		
& Gross Investment		Statistics		
a cropp thresement	1957-64	YNAS	UN	1965-66
	1965-74	YNAS	UN	1975
	1303-14	INAD	OIN	1373
Imports & Exports*	1950-59	Statistical	UN	1000
imports & Exports"	1930-39		UN	1960
	1000 00	Yearbook	****	3060
	1960-66	SY	UN	1968
	1967-75	SY .	UN	1975
Exchange Rate	1950-60	Statistical	UN	1960
		Yearbook		
	1961-67	SY	UN	1968
	1968-75	SY	UN	1975
Wage Rate	1950-57	Statistical	UN	1958
_		Yearbook		
	1958-65	SY	UN	1967
	1966-75	SY	UN	1975
			011	13,0
Interest Rate	1950-57	Statistical	UN	1958
	2500 07	Yearbook	011	1930
	1958-62	SY	UN	1962
	1963-68	SY	UN	1968
	1969-75	SY	UN	1975
	1909-73	21	UN	1973
Population	1050 63	Domognoshig	T TAT	1066
Population	1950-63	Demographic	UN	1966
	1064 70	Yearbook	****	7.070
	1964-73	DY	UN	1973
	19 74-7 5	DY	UN	1974-75
Employment Index	1950-54	Yearbook of	Inter-	1957
and Employment Leve	1	Labor	national	
		Statistics	. Labor Of	
	1955-59	YLS	' ITO	1965
	1960-65	YLS	ILO	1970
	1966-75	YLS	ILO	1976
•			•	
Capital/Output	(1968-73)	World Tables	The Worl	.d 1976
(Average ICOR)		1976	Bank	
				(cont.)

^{*} The regional figures are from UN's "Yearbook of International Trade Statistics, 1965 & 1975."

Table 3. REFERENCES FOR DATA (cont.)

O Variable	bservation Period	Title of Publication	Publisher	Reference Issue
For CPE only *				
1. China GDP, Private Consumption, Govern- ment Consumption, Gross Investment, Population, Labor Fo. & Capital/Output	is for 1970)	"An Econo- metric Model of China"	L.I. Lau, W.W.F. Choa W. L. Lin, & J.D. Shea	,
Imports & Exports	1950-74	"China: Economic Indicators"	CIA, USA	Oct. 1977
2. Cuba Index of Real GNP Population and Civilian Employment	1957-74 1955-74	"The Cuban Economy, A Statistical Review, 1968-76"	CIA, USA	
Net Material Product	1962-64	Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics	UN	"1965-66"
S/NMP, I/NMP	1965-74 1962-74	YNAS YNAS	UN UN	1975 1975
3. Eastern Europe Real GNP Indices	1955-64	"Economic Structure and Growth in	٠	
•	1965-74	Eastern Europe" "Comparative T.P. Alton Structure and Growth of Economic Activity in Eastern Europe"		
S/NMP, I/NMP	1962-74	Yearbook of National Acc Statistics	UN Ount	1975

(cont.)

^{*} NMP deflator, wage rate, population except for China & Cuba, employment index and employment level from the same detailed source as for market economies.

Table 3. REFERENCES FOR DATA (cont.)

	Observation	Title of	Publisher	Reference
Variable	Period	Publication		Issue
4. USSR Real GNP, Private Consumption, Gover ment Consumption, Gross Investment, GNP Deflator and Capital Output Ratio for 1970		SOVMOD III	Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates	